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PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS IN AN EMERGENT TERRITORY
INFLUENCES OF BRITISH TRADITION AND CHANGES FOLLOWING INDEPENDENCE

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Physical Education and Sports in an Emergent Territory: Influences of British Tradition and Changes Following Independence," submitted by Randolph Rufus Nicholson in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts.

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ABSTRACT

This is an attempt to assess the influence of political, social and economic factors on the development of an aspect of education, that of physical education and sports, in a colonizing territory (England), and a former colonial one (Ghana). The study was also designed to assess the nature and scope of developments achieved in physical education and sports after independence was gained in Ghana.

It was found that in both territories, the pattern of education was not dissimilar in the early stages. Education was directed to a select group in the upper level of the social structure. This level enjoyed sports as a natural pastime. Physical education was included in the curriculum in England, but was only given a token place in the old colonial territory of the Gold Coast.

There was much voluntary effort to achieve the establishment of sports and physical education organizations in England, but the Central Government is now being more closely associated with sport organization and administration.

In Ghana rapid expansion in sport and physical education was achieved after political independence. This occurred to such an extent that the pendulum, which was in a state of imbalance under the British regime, has now swung to the other extreme. Racial policies have been observed, and the State appears to dominate the activities of all sports organizations.

The following recommendations are therefore made.

1. A lesser involvement of the State in sport.
2. A reconsideration of the President's personal involvement in sport administration.
3. A lessening of the "national prestige" aspect of international sport.
4. A reduction of the political indoctrination of the Young Pioneers.
5. Greater autonomy of local organizations (at village level in sport).
6. A greater involvement of the teachers of physical education in schools, with the post school schemes.
7. Freer participation by young people for the natural benefits of sport.
8. Selection to National teams to be made primarily on merit, and the elimination of considerations of colour.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Purpose and Significance

The purpose of this study is to assess the influence of British tradition on the development of sport and physical education in the Republic of Ghana during the period of direct rule and the growth of independence movements.

The study is significant because it will assist in giving some data on the inter-relationship of political, economic and social factors in the context of majority-minority situations. Apart from this, the inherent value of such a study is well supported by Hans:

Is it not likely that if we have endeavoured in sympathetic spirit to understand the real working of a foreign system of education, we shall in turn find ourselves better able to enter into the spirit and tradition of our own national education more sensitive to its unwritten ideals, quicker to catch the signs which mark the dangers which threaten it and the subtle workings of hurtful change. The practical value of studying in a right spirit and with scholarly accuracy the working of foreign systems of education is that it will result in our being better fitted to study and understand our own.¹

The wider significance of this type of study is also clearly recognized by Moehlman who stated that all systems of education have values, and that intelligent comparative studies of educational systems can assist in the advancement of international understanding.²

¹ Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education (Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London: 1951) Introduction, p. vi.

² A. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (New York: Centre for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963), p. 3.

The justification for a study of this nature is therefore clearly established. Numerous studies of this type abound in other disciplines, but there is a paucity of comprehensive references in the area of comparative education, and much more so in the area of comparative physical education.

This fact is attested to by Zeigler who is critical of the quality of research in this field.³ This does not mean that this study was undertaken simply because of the lack of such studies, but mainly because of the need for this type of research.

Bereday emphasises the importance of the comparative area in education when he submitted:

Education is a mirror held against the face of a people. How nations take care of their children tell unerringly who they are. For every nation knowing about other nations is now not only a matter of curiosity but of necessity.⁴

Kandel argues the international value of the comparative approach⁵ and goes on to emphasize the significance of considering factors over and above the mere study of the school system:

A study of foreign education that neglects the search for hidden meanings of things found in the schools is merely the acquisition of information about another educational system, and is of little value as a contribution to the classification of thought to the better development of education as a science and to the building up of a comprehensive all embracing philosophy of education.⁶

³ Earle F. Zeigler, History and Philosophy of Physical Education and Sport (University of Illinois, December 1964).

⁴ G. Z. F. Bereday, Comparative Method in Education (U.S.A., Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 5.

⁵ I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Riverside Press, 1933), p. 7.

⁶ Ibid.

The intellectual motivation in the comparative method is further acknowledged by Bereday. He stated:

The foremost justification for comparative education as for other comparative studies is intellectual. Men study foreign educational systems simply because they want to know, because men must forever stir in quest of enlightenment. Knowledge for its own sake is the sole ground upon which comparative education needs to make a stand in order to merit inclusion among academic fields.⁷

Definition of Terms.

British Tradition in Education, Sports and Physical Education

All the developments in the social, economic and legislative spheres which together have resulted in the development of attitudes and policies in education, physical education and sports.

Independent Territory

A territory with a British Colonial background, whose indigenous peoples now control legally its internal and external affairs--specifically Ghana.

Physical Education and Sports

In this study the above are regarded as integral aspects of education and social development.

Delimitations

1. The processes under review in this study have been limited to the period 1870 to 1965.
2. Another limitation is the use of secondary source material.

⁷G. Z. F. Bereday, op. cit., p. 5.

Methods and Procedures

The Design

Batten, commenting on the structure and content of education in African societies submitted that:

The early missionaries in common with the Europeans working in Africa, judged the value of African customs and institutions by what they had known in Europe and their chief aim was to bring them as closely as possible to what was accepted as good among white people. They therefore tried to introduce into Africa for Africans the same education that was provided for English children in England.⁸

What was this education "for English children in England?" To appreciate the development of the complex structure that is British education it was necessary for a review to be made. This involved a survey of the interrelationships of the many factors that contributed to the emergence of the final structure. For as Cramer and Browne have submitted:

Education in any nation is a product of a number of forces in the national community. The general economic conditions, the basic beliefs and traditions, the political background, the degree to which educational thought has developed: these and many factors determine the direction in which a nation's educational systems will develop.⁹

⁸R. R. Batten, Problems of African Development (University of London, 1960), p. 28.

⁹J. F. Cramer and G. S. Browne, Contemporary Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1956), Foreword.

British Colonial policy with respect to the political developments in the Republic of Ghana has been reviewed. It is the contention here that political developments play an integral part in the developments in education.

For England the study will be confined primarily to the period 1870 to 1965. For Ghana the following periods will be contrasted: 1900 - 1952 and 1952 - 1965. Nineteen fifty-two has been chosen as the "breaking off" point, because it was at this time that the first measure of representative government was given to the people of the Gold Coast--Ghana's former name.

In contrasting developments in the fields of physical education and sports, the selection of appropriate criteria is necessary. In keeping with modern thought, the criteria selected are as follows:

1. Government expenditure on sports and physical education within the selected periods of study.

The selection of this criterion is ably supported by Moehlman who claimed:

A national philosophy of education is indicated not only in official government statements or in statutes on laws which implement these statements, but also in the actual expenditure for education.¹⁰

2. The concept and significance of physical education and sports in the society.

3. The provisions for administration and organization of

¹⁰A. Moehlman, op. cit., p. 83.

physical education and sports in schools in the various periods.

4. The place of physical education and sports in the curriculum. The training of teachers and their remuneration vis a vis other professions.

5. Youth and adult programmes. Provision for their organization and supervision. National and international achievements in sport at these levels.

6. Developments in recreational facilities in the selected periods.

Methods and Procedures

The study will be done by investigation of primary and secondary sources. The primary sources will cover mainly official documents published by both the United Kingdom and Ghanaian governments. The secondary sources will encompass books, reports and other similar material, together with discussions and other verbal material from persons acquainted with the area under study.

CHAPTER II

ENGLAND: THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH TRADITION IN EDUCATION

Education: General Background.

Developments of great significance have taken place in the English system of education, some of which are of relatively recent origin. Although the state was somewhat dilatory in entering the field of public education, today many would claim that this slowness was on the whole of benefit to the country. When eventually attention was given to public education, a great movement developed and educational progress was extremely rapid.¹¹

Class distinction was a previous hallmark of the English system of education. Only since about 1902 has it been possible for a child of poor parents to secure a reasonably good standard of secondary education.¹² For the purpose of this study this characteristic is important and will be related to further discussions on British Colonial policy.

¹¹J. F. Cramer and G. S. Browne, op. cit., p. 56.

¹²D. B. Van Dalen, E. D. Mitchell and B. L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, U.S.A.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1961), pp. 288-289.

Almost inevitably a student's future was determined by the economic position of his parents and for many years this state of affairs continued. On the one hand there was the "ruling class" whose children went to Public schools (now regarded as Independent schools) and then on to either Oxford or Cambridge Universities; on the other there was the working class whose children received a token form of primary education and then joined the vast ranks of the "working class".

Today, however, the position has undergone a revolutionary change and discrimination in education due to poor economic circumstances is virtually unknown.

Armfelt¹³ and Lowndes¹⁴ are agreed that the system now aims to establish a social democracy and that comparatively, England possesses one of the world's most progressive educational systems. This was not done at once, for England is known for its respect for tradition and individual rights. Changes were at first so very slow that they were nearly imperceptible. There was a speeding up in the early part of the twentieth century but the great and momentous changes came with the Education Act of 1944, which Passow has evaluated as one of the most revolutionary legislative acts in the world.¹⁵

¹³R. Armfelt, The Structure of English Education (London: Cohen and West Ltd., 1955), pp. 9 - 47.

¹⁴G. A. N. Lowndes, The British Educational System (London: Hutchison and Co. Ltd., 1960), pp. 15 - 65.

¹⁵A. Harry Passow, Secondary Education for all the English Approach (Ohio State University Press, Ohio, U.S.A., 1961), pp. 17 - 82.

Such a revolutionary instrument as the Education Act of 1944 must have as its background a great deal of social and economic factors. What then were the exact social and economic factors in England which made such sweeping changes so vital?

In the years which followed the establishment of the American Colonies, Britain became the centre of world trade. When the demands created by the industrial revolution appeared, Britain was well prepared. There was enough coal to supply the power to make the mechanical inventions useful, and the immigration of people from the country to the cities provided the necessary labour for the factories. The Colonial Empire provided the raw materials and markets for her goods. The nineteenth century saw the establishment of individual liberty and the economic doctrine of "laissez faire" was the order of the day. It saw too, the establishment of rigid social classes, with the upper classes being influential and powerful.

The economic and social aspects of industry influenced the educational system in no small measure. The "Public" schools catered for the children of the upper and middle classes.¹⁶

These were wealthy, "snobbish" institutions, which guarded very jealously their long established traditions of class superiority. Boys attending these schools were expected to go on to Oxford and

¹⁶ P. C. McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800 (London: G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., 1952), p. 18.

Cambridge and then to take over positions of responsibility in the government. Of paramount importance to this study is the fact that many of these individuals entered the Colonial service and served in administrative capacities overseas. This aspect of government and its relationship to educational attitudes in the colonies will be developed in a later chapter.

Education of the other children was provided in County schools under the supervision of a Board of Education. These provided a basic education in the three R's for "poor children".¹⁷

So long as there was peace in the nation this system was free from revolutionary change. Although there were signs of change before the first world war, the entire structure of education in the late nineteenth century represented the interests of powerful industrialists,¹⁸ who were not unwilling to grant small measures of improvement in the lower level of the system provided that such measures did not spread ideas of great improvement and ultimate educational equality among the working class.

Peace, however, was shattered; and in the twentieth century Britain was involved in two long struggles. One of the many results

¹⁷D. B. van Dalen et al, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, U.S.A.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 200.

¹⁸J. F. Cramer and G. S. Browne, op. cit., p. 58.

of these struggles was that great social changes took place which necessitated a programme of social welfare. This was facilitated by political developments. Immediately after the Second World War the Conservative party was defeated. While in some aspects the capitalist class still remained, its strangle-hold on education was broken. A Labour government came into power. This was a reflection of the thinking of the time and not particularly of the upper classes. Ambitious schemes of social welfare were introduced. Education was given top priority and the old order was broken.

The structure of English education.

Very broadly the stages in English education are as follows:

1. Primary:

- (a) Nursery school - up to 5 years.
- (b) Infant school - 5 to 7 years.
- (c) Junior school - 7 to 12 years.

11. Secondary:

- (a) Secondary grammar - with an academic type curriculum leading towards University.
- (b) Secondary Technical - for those pupils with a direct aptitude for technical work.
- (c) Secondary Modern - for those pupils whose requirements are not met by either of the two previously mentioned secondary schools. Combination of all these secondary programmes is sometimes done in one school. This is known as the Comprehensive school.

Further education:

- (a) University - University education is provided by a large number of Universities throughout the country. Entrance to these institutions is primarily through the Secondary Grammar school through success at the General Certificate of Education examination (G.C.E.).
- (b) Day and Evening Courses - Many cities provide courses leading towards a degree or towards the General Certificate of Education. The institutions providing these courses are known as Day or Evening Colleges, or Polytechnic Institutes.
- (c) Teacher Training - Teacher training of three years' duration is done at specialist Colleges. One year courses are also found at Institutes of Education and Departments of Education in Universities.
- (d) Other education - These include vocational courses, together with commercial Colleges and Colleges of Art which are found in many of the larger cities.¹⁹

The Administration of Education

Education is administered by a mixture of centralized direction on broad policy matters and local autonomy in working out the details.

The development, organization, administration and financing of the state school system are the joint responsibilities of the national government, through the Ministry of Education and the local government through the local Education Authorities. There are 156 local Education Authorities.¹⁹

¹⁹G. D. Robbins, Teacher Education and Professional Standards in England and Wales (Ohio State University Press, Ohio, U.S.A., 1963), pp. 14 - 15.

The Minister of Education does not own any school or appoint a teacher. This is the function of the local Education Authorities. The Ministry assists these Local Authorities in building schools over which they have complete administrative control.

Her Majesty's Inspectors (H.M.I.'s) keep the Ministry "in touch" with developments in the schools. Their inspections are of two kinds: full inspections which are followed by reports to the Minister, and routine ones in regard to which no report is entailed. The routine inspections are carried out by the Inspector with particular responsibility for the school, but when a full inspection is required he becomes one of a team of which he acts as chairman.

There are also voluntary, locally built schools which fall into three categories--controlled, aided and special agreement. A controlled school if fully financed by the State has no financial obligations. The local managers or governors of an aided school are responsible for the capital expenditure on the exterior of buildings. Managers of special agreement schools are responsible for half of their capital expenditure.²⁰

²⁰Roger Armfelt, The Structure of British Education (London: Cohen and West, Ltd., 1955), pp. 8 - 35.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENTS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Historical

In England generally, opportunities for recreation have been available for all classes of people. The mild climate has encouraged outdoor pastimes, and all sections of the society have traditionally been interested in sports. Between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries edicts were issued forbidding certain sports so that citizens would devote themselves solely to the practice of archery for the defence of the nation. The Puritan times were dark ages for sport with most of them being prohibited on moral grounds. The days of the Restoration once more brought freedom in the participation of games. With the advent of the Industrial Revolution, the masses left their country and village life for the crowded slums and factories. Labouring at monotonous jobs for most of the day, even in the tender years of childhood, lacking their customary rural recreations, they tended to sink into general physical degradation.²¹ Conditions grew so alarming that social consciousness was awakened, resulting in the securing

²¹D. B. van Dalen, et al, op. cit., pp. 288 - 289.

of longer leisure hours for working men.²²

The tendency for increased leisure hours continued through the latter part of the nineteenth century and was accelerated in the twentieth. Consistent efforts were made to provide physical education at school age, and adequate facilities for physical recreation at post school age.

The British Army was responsible for putting into practice in the schools, Swedish drill.²³ The military events at the turn of the nineteenth century gave impetus to the establishment of gymnastic training for military men. The programmes of Nachteggall in Denmark, and Ling in Sweden were followed in military circles, and in 1822 Clias was invited to England to establish gymnastic training for the military services. He was duly made Superintendent of Physical Training in the Royal Military and Naval Academies. Gymnastics was thus introduced to the military establishments, and was eventually taken to the schools when the army training instructors became associated with the schools.²⁴

²²B. Holmes, Problems in Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965), pp. 5 - 6.

²³P. C. McIntosh, op. cit., p. 78.

²⁴Ibid.

In 1870 the introduction of the Education Bill into the House of Commons provided fresh opportunity for pressing the claims of physical education. The suggestions were that:

1. Physical education and health education should be introduced into training colleges with an examination in theory and practice at the end of the course.
 11. Vacation courses should be established.
 111. Unattached teachers of physical education should visit schools and give theoretical and practical instruction to other teachers.
- IV. Physical education should be approved.

The suggestions were ignored upon passing of the 1870 Education Act, but were each finally accepted by the central government in the years 1902, 1907, 1908, and 1917 respectively.²⁵

The first official syllabus of physical training was published by the Board of Education in England in 1904. This syllabus underwent subsequent revisions in 1905, 1909, 1919 and 1933, each time carrying the principle of freedom and enjoyment in gymnastics further and increasing the emphasis on games and athletics.²⁶

²⁵Ibid., pp. 104 - 105.

²⁶D. B. van Dalen, et al., op. cit., p. 293.

The 1933 Syllabus of Physical Training²⁷ was divided into two parts; one for use in junior schools for children under eleven years of age, and a second for use in senior schools for children over eleven years. Exercises were introduced with a view to the special encouragement of posture of muscles and joints. A large number of simple games was described which were intended to lead up to the more advanced field games. The programme of lessons and tables perpetuated a somewhat formal gymnastic pattern of work, but at the same time the inclusion of activity exercises ensured much force and vigorous movement in every lesson.

It, however, overemphasized the importance of posture by saying that the maintenance of good posture was one of the primary objects of physical training. No teacher could be regarded as successful unless his pupils assumed good bodily positions naturally and as a matter of course without evidence of strain or stiffness. This apparently was one of the chief aims of the 1933 syllabus.

The quality of teachers of physical training continued to be below standard. The instructors recruited from the army proved inadequate and in 1930 the Board of Education decided that it was not desirable that instruction be in the hands of those whose qualification was limited to physical training. However, the central

²⁷Board of Education, Syllabus of Physical Training (London: His Majesty's Publishers, 1933).

government, although acknowledging the need for development of proper training facilities, was unwilling to establish the necessary centres of training. Thus the provision of facilities was left to local bodies or voluntary organizations, and in 1933 the first recognized men's Training College of Physical Education was opened. It was named "Carnegie College" after the Carnegie Trustees who had made its founding possible.

The course at Carnegie was opened to those who had already obtained a teacher's certificate or a degree at a British University. Similar one year courses were started at Loughborough College in 1935 and at Goldsmiths College, London, in 1937. As the years passed other notable institutions were founded, one of the most well known of the newer colleges being St. Luke's College, Exeter.

In contrast to the development of the men's colleges, the women's colleges were founded fairly easily and by 1916 six women's colleges (Dartford, Bedford, Anstey, Dumferline, I. M. March, and Chelsea) were established,²⁸ with the most well known being I. M. Marsh College of Physical Education.

²⁸P. C. McIntosh, op. cit., p. 217.

Modern Trends

In 1941 the Report of the Committee of the Secondary Schools Examinations Council appointed by the President of the Board of Education, was issued. Of Physical Education the Committee said:

A pupil has the right to expect and it is the duty of those who undertake responsibility for his education to ensure that his body is educated as well as his mind. On healthy growth and vigour of body largely depends his intellectual development, and right discipline of body can contribute powerfully to moral strength.²⁹

It proceeded to stress the importance of developing a sound body not only for one's personal benefit but also for the good of the entire community. The contribution of the school to the physical and mental well being of its pupils was emphasized in the report, which appeared very significant in view of the new developments which soon after were made in physical education. These developments were embodied in the provisions for physical education in the Education Act of 1944, and the Building Regulations of 1945.

The Education Act of 1944³⁰ made it compulsory for each Local Education Authority to provide facilities and equipment for

²⁹ Board of Education, Report of the Committee of the Secondary Schools Examinations Council (London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1941), p. 71.

³⁰ A. Harry Passow, Secondary Education for All, the English Approach (Ohio State University Press, Ohio, U.S.A., 1961), pp. 17 - 82.

recreational and physical training, including camps, playing areas, swimming pools, school journeys and holiday classes.

The Building Regulations of 1945³¹ stated that the site of every county or voluntary school must be suitable and include a playground. The area of the site would depend on the size of the school and would vary from half an acre to three acres. Each county or voluntary school must be provided with playing fields having an area of from half an acre for very small schools (not exceeding fifty pupils over the age of seven years) to fourteen acres for large three-form entry secondary schools.

In the secondary county or voluntary schools, departments with a gymnasium were provided with sufficient showers and changing rooms for each sex. It was stated that the temperature of these rooms should usually be about 60°F. but should not be less than 55°F. even when the outside temperature is below 32°F. There should be three air changes every hour.

These regulations are being rigidly enforced by the Ministry of Education and no plans for new schools are approved unless they provide adequate facilities for physical education and school health.

³¹Ministry of Education, The Building Regulations 1945 (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1945).

The Movement Era

In the period after the war new principles and ideas were propounded in physical education. Rudolph Laban³² expressed what are now regarded as "Theories of Movement". His ideas originated through dance and the term "Modern Educational Dance" came into use.

Physical educators who were against the formal approach used in gymnastics hailed the new ideas and were eager to apply them to physical education. At about this time, too, there was growing an awareness of the relationship between the psychological and the physical. In 1952, therefore, the Ministry of Education published an account of the principles underlying child development.³³

The following year, the Ministry of Education published a syllabus of physical education in keeping with these principles.³⁴ This is of invaluable use in the primary schools and in early secondary school.

³²R. Laban, Modern Educational Dance (Revised edition, London: McDonald and Evans, 1963).

³³Ministry of Education, Moving and Growing (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1952).

³⁴Ministry of Education, Planning the Programme (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1953).

The new considerations regarding physical development of children embodied in the two texts caused much controversy about teaching methods in physical education, especially in the primary schools. This was essentially a conflict between the formal approach to gymnastics and Laban's informal, indirect approach.

The organization of Physical education in schools

In educational institutions maintained by public funds, physical education is organized for the following:

1. Infants.
2. Juniors.
3. Secondary classes.
4. Institutions for further education.³⁵

Infants

The infant classes, aged five to seven, give the child an opportunity for climbing, jumping, crawling, balancing and swinging. He develops some skill with the apparatus, such as hoops, with ropes for skipping and jumping and with balls for kicking, rolling, aiming, throwing and catching. Rhythmic movements with or without music and familiar games, particularly of the running and chasing type are included.

³⁵D. B. Van Dalen, et al., op. cit., pp. 302-303.

Juniors

In the junior school the children continue with their free activity. More group and win or team games are introduced as well as the fundamentals of major sports. More advanced activities on apparatus include work on climbing ropes, benches, beams, boxes, and stools. A start is made in teaching mixed groups.

Secondary

Howell and Van Vliet state that in the secondary schools, gymnastics, games, athletics, dancing and swimming are an integral part of most curricula.³⁶

Van Dalen et al., also affirm that gymnastics, cricket, football, athletics, fencing, boxing, wrestling, and other voluntary activities are included in the school programme.³⁷

³⁶M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, Physical Education and Recreation in Europe (Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate, Department of National Health and Welfare, Canada, 1965).

³⁷Van Dalen, et al., op. cit., pp. 290 - 291.

In general, the aims of modern day physical education in England are embodied in the following:

- (i) To secure and maintain a high standard of bodily health, physique and vigour.
- (ii) To develop qualities of character, high social ideals and team spirit.
- (iii) To foster an appreciation of the joys of physical fitness.
- (iv) To cultivate quick and accurate co-ordination of thought and action.
- (v) To develop easy graceful bodily movement and poise.
- (vi) To develop general motor skill and specialized recreational and occupational skills.
- (vii) To provide opportunities for self expression and self testing.
- (viii) To encourage the pursuit of wholesome leisure time activities.³⁸

The activities of the Outward Bound Trust and the Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme, play an important part in the late secondary programme.

The former involve activities centered upon basic athletics, seamanship and cross country expeditions.³⁹ The programme

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Outward Bound Trust, Outward Bound Moray Sea School (London: 1956), p. 1.

in the Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme is divided into four parts:

1. Rescue and Public service.
2. Expedition.
3. Pursuits and Projects.
4. Fitness.

The Gauntlet stated that:

Boys of fourteen and over contend for the first series, receiving on completion a commendatory letter from Sir John Hunt accompanied by a Bronze badge. Boys of fifteen and over enter for the Silver standard receiving on completion a Certificate signed by the Duke of Edinburgh and a silver badge. The Gold Award is for boys over sixteen who have already achieved the silver standard.⁴⁰

In the independent Public schools plans governing physical education vary greatly. Normally, a master with a games background, often a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge Universities, supervises the programme.

At the universities there is provision for games and sports of all kinds. Some universities have instituted departments of physical education. At Birmingham University in particular some form of physical education is compulsory for all undergraduates during their first year.⁴¹ At the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge student participation in physical activities is confined

⁴⁰ Duke of Edinburgh's Award Office, The Gauntlet (32 Bryanston Street, London W.1, 1959), pp. 16 - 19.

⁴¹ M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 54.

mainly to the major sports and games and athletics. Competitions are organized between these two institutions, and rivalry is very keen. It is regarded as a major achievement in sport to have represented either of these two Universities, thereby gaining one's "colours", "Blue" as it is called.

The Practice of Physical Education and the Training of Teachers

Since 1961 the training programme for all teachers was extended to three years.⁴² This new change reduced the number of specialist physical education colleges to "wing" colleges or departments of physical education within a larger training organization. Robbins states that there is now only one male specialist physical education college.⁴³

Under the three year programme, the first two years are spent in the study of physical education and other subjects. The final year is devoted exclusively to the study and practice of physical education. The courses include the following:

1. Anatomy and theory of movement.
2. Physiology.
3. Principles of physical education.
4. Practical activities--Games, Swimming, Athletics, Gymnastics, and Camping.
5. Teaching Method in Physical Education.
6. Teaching Practice.⁴⁴

⁴²G. D. Robbins, Teacher Education and Professional Standards in England and Wales (Ohio State University Press, 1963), p. 21.

⁴³Ibid., p. 19.

⁴⁴University of Leeds Institute of Education, Handbook (1963), p. 25.

Other Courses

The Carnegie College of Physical Education in association with the University of Leeds Institute of Education, offers a "fourth" year course of study for specialist teachers of physical education. It is regarded as a specialist course and is the only one of its kind in the United Kingdom. Students are awarded a Diploma in Physical Education upon successful completion of an examination covering the following:

1. Principle and practice of physical education.
2. Assessment of a dissertation or thesis on the student's subject of special study.⁴⁵

British universities have in the past been very reluctant to institute degrees in physical education. University graduates wishing to become teachers of physical education were requested to undergo a special one year training in physical education after university graduation.

Since 1946, however, the University of Birmingham has instituted a course in physical education, as one of the subjects to be studied for a general Bachelor of Arts degree.⁴⁶ Apart from this, as has been stated earlier, the University requires all its undergraduate students to participate in their first year in a one year course in physical education.⁴⁷

⁴⁵University of Leeds Institute of Education, op. cit., p. 74.

⁴⁶University of Birmingham, Department of Physical Education, p. 1.

⁴⁷Ibid.

Over the years, however, there has been a growing feeling that there should be a closer relationship between universities and colleges. A committee under the chairmanship of Lord Robbins was appointed to make recommendations on Higher Education.⁴⁸

Its report, published in 1963, advised considerable university expansion based upon the belief that the universities should remain in character, broadly speaking, as before. Colleges of Advanced Technology were to become universities and closer links were to be established between training colleges and universities. Some of these training colleges were to award degrees in which educational studies would find a place.⁴⁹ This provides a hopeful future for teacher training and ultimately for physical education.

In Service Training

This is accomplished in several ways. Local classes conducted by organizers of physical education are held from time to time in many areas. Vacation courses are given during the summer months by various governing bodies of sports and colleges of physical education. Of the latter, Loughborough College is very well known for its summer school activities.

⁴⁸Robbins Report, Higher Education (mnd. 2154.) (London: H.M.S.O., Oct. 1963).

⁴⁹Brian Holmes, Problems in Education (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965), p. 249.

Women's Colleges

Three years' training has not affected the women's colleges as much as it did the men's. This was due to the fact that in the women's colleges training was already of three years duration. The only significant change would be the type of certificate awarded. Previously a diploma was awarded. This was changed to a teaching certificate. Robbins has stated that there are now seven women's specialist colleges.⁵⁰ The well known ones are: Lady Mabel College, I. M. Marsh, Nonington, Chelsea, Anstey, and Dartford Colleges.

The Physical Education Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

This is a non-governmental body founded as the Ling Association in 1899. It exists to encourage and facilitate the scientific study of the physical health of the community through physical education.

The objects are:

1. To educate and instruct specialist teachers of physical education, in current theory and practice of physical education, both in the United Kingdom and overseas.
2. To facilitate the exchange of information, knowledge, and thought on these subjects, and maintain means of information.
3. To encourage the formation of branches, societies, and to support research in physical education, by professional bodies.
4. To issue publications on various topics.⁵¹

⁵⁰G. D Robbins, op. cit., p. 19.

⁵¹Physical Education Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (Ling House, London, W. 1, Vol. 56, No. 169), Nov. 1964 (x).

Post School Recreation.

The British system of organization of recreation is quite haphazard and lacking in uniformity. There is a strong partnership between the state, local education authorities, voluntary associations and governing bodies of sports. Co-operation between each is encouraged, but each is allowed to operate with an optimum of independence and freedom.⁵²

In recent years much alarm has been felt over the lack of provision of adequate facilities for physical recreation for post school youths. Both the Albemarle and Crowther Reports⁵³ pointed out that a "gap" or break existed between the time a boy left school, and his participation in physical activities again.

To investigate this, and other general problems of sport, the Central Council for Physical Recreation appointed a Committee in 1957 to make necessary recommendations.

The Central Council for Physical Recreation (C.C.P.R.) was itself formed in 1935, and is a voluntary association of all the national bodies in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Its Council is composed of representatives of the British Olympic Association, and the Governing Bodies of forty-one sports, sixteen national outdoor activity associations, sixteen bodies concerned with dancing and rhythmic movement and thirty-four voluntary youth organizations

⁵²Van Dalen, et al., op. cit., p. 299.

⁵³Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education in England. (Vols. 1 and 2, H.M.S.O., 1959 and 1960).

in addition to representatives of community centres, educational, physical education and health education organizations, local education authorities, and the service sports branches, a total of one hundred and ninety-nine national bodies. In addition there are sixty-six individual members of the Council.⁵⁴

The headquarters of the C.C.P.R. are in London. Branch offices are in Cardiff and Belfast and there are nine regional offices in England.⁵⁵

The report of the 1957 committee which sat under the chairmanship of Sir John Wolfenden was issued in 1960.⁵⁶ The committee recommended the establishment of a new organization to be known as the Sports Development Council. The committee visualized this as being not a body of specialist experts or of representatives of the various sports and games, but a small body of six to ten persons of varied experience, who had a general knowledge of the field, and such personal standing as would give them authority and influence.⁵⁷ Five million pounds was recommended by the committee as the amount to be distributed in cash in any one year by the Sports Development Council, either by way of non-recurrent grants, or in assistance towards the recurrent expenditure of the composite bodies, and the individual national associations concerned with physical recreation.⁵⁸

⁵⁴Sport and the Community (London: Central Council for Physical Recreation, 1960), p. 16.

⁵⁵Ibid.

⁵⁶Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 100.

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 104.

Molyneux⁵⁹ said that since its publication, the Wolfenden report has been the subject of two parliamentary debates, both during the opening months of 1961, one in the House of Lords, and the other in the House of Commons. On both occasions, there were assurances by official government speakers of close consideration of a Sports Development Council. The first step towards this was taken with the appointment of a Minister to co-ordinate sport facilities,⁶⁰ and finally in 1965, in keeping with the recommendations of the Wolfenden report, the Sports Council was established.⁶¹

Recreational facilities

Each Local Education Authority is charged with the responsibility of providing adequate playing facilities within its jurisdictional boundaries. Voluntary organizations (The National Playing Fields Association, and the C.C.P.R.) also give much assistance in this.

Howell and Van Vliet have expressed the opinion that:

A visitor to England's recreational facilities will be impressed by the number of playing fields available for public and school use.⁶²

⁵⁹D. D. Molyneux, Central Government Aid to Sport and Physical Recreation in Countries of Western Europe (University of Birmingham, England, 1962).

⁶⁰M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 55.

⁶¹Discussion with G. Elliott, Assistant Professor of Physical Education, University of Alberta, August, 1966.

⁶²M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 55.

An example of the participation by the Local Education Authorities in the provision of playing fields is the "Morden Park Play Field", completed by the London County Council in 1955.

This one complex includes seventeen soccer fields, six rugby fields, nine hockey fields, nineteen netball and fifteen cricket tables, together with administrative and change areas. Equipment is provided.⁶³

National Recreation Centres

The C.C.P.R. has been given the credit for the concept of National recreation centres in England. Their purpose is to provide residential facilities for training in leadership and in personal performance in a wide range of games, sports and outdoor activities.⁶⁴

There are four National centres in England (Bislam Abbey, Lilleshall Hall, Plasy Brenin and Crystal Palace). Crystal Palace, the most recently established at a cost of two million pounds, has facilities for track and field, three swimming pools, sports hall, cricket pitches, and will accommodate about twelve thousand spectators.⁶⁵

⁶³Ibid., p. 55.

⁶⁴Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., pp. 18 - 19.

⁶⁵M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 55.

Amateur Sport

With very few exceptions, each of the games and sports in England has its own Amateur National Governing Body, which is recognized as the legislative and disciplinary authority for its particular sport. Some of the established governing bodies of sports are:

Amateur Athletic Association

Amateur Boxing Association

Amateur Basketball Association

Amateur Fencing Association

Amateur Rowing Association

Amateur Swimming Association

All England Netball Association

Badminton Association of England

British Judo Association

English Bowling Association

The Football Association

English Table Tennis Association

The Hockey Association

The Lawn Tennis Association

The Rugby Association

The National Rounders Association.⁶⁶

⁶⁶Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., pp. 116 - 122.

Apart from the governing bodies of sport, the British Olympic Association selects teams for various Olympic and Commonwealth competitions. The Olympic Association was founded in 1925, and its Council is composed of members of the International Olympic Committee, representatives of its affiliated sports bodies, and a few co-opted members.⁶⁷

Coaching

The C.C.P.R. conducts a wide variety of coaching activities. They include instruction for coaches and instructors, courses in personal performance lectures and displays. Its staff gives advisory, technical and administrative help wherever required, but particularly to the headquarters, regional, county and local branches of its constituent organizations and local education authorities.⁶⁸

At the national level, coaching is also conducted by some of the governing bodies of sport. In 1960, there were five National coaches in Athletics under the direction of a Chief national coach, the scheme being organized by the Amateur Athletic Association.⁶⁹

⁶⁷Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., pp. 14 - 15.

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 40 - 52.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 40.

The A.A.A. also runs a summer school at Loughborough College of Physical Education. For the period 1947 - 1960 over one thousand five hundred honorary coaches, and one hundred and twenty honorary senior coaches have qualified.⁷⁰

There are also national coaches in swimming, football and hockey. In general, coaching has tended to play a technically less effective role in British sport than elsewhere.⁷¹ Facilities have not always been adequate. This led to the resignation of one of the most successful athletic coaches in 1960. However, it would appear that improvements are slowly being made.

Professional Sport

Professional sport (cricket, soccer and rugby) is well established in England. The soccer pools particularly are world famous, and yield tremendous revenues. Molyneux said that revenue from the pools in the years 1960, 1961 and 1962 was thirty-one, thirty-three and thirty million pounds respectively.⁷²

Most of the major cities have their own professional soccer teams and their own stadium. Support for individual teams is very strong in various areas, and the final match of the league--the Cup Final, played at Wembley Stadium in London is a very celebrated event, and is usually attended by the reigning monarch.

⁷⁰Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., p. 40.

⁷¹Ibid., pp. 42 - 46.

⁷²D. D. Molyneux, op. cit., p. 9.

English League cricket is well known, and especially in the County of Yorkshire commands a significant following on Saturday afternoons. On the international cricket scene, the matches known as "Tests" are also well established.

The Financial Aspects of Physical Education and Recreation Schemes.

The finances for all the various physical education and recreation schemes fall under three headings.

1. Direct expenditure by the Ministry of Education.
2. Grants made by government departments towards expenditure by local authorities .
3. Expenditure from the rates levied by local authorities.⁷³

The Albermarle report⁷⁴ quotes £ 5,155,000 as the expenditure in 1957/58 by local education authorities on recreation for all branches of the Youth Service. Though no accurate subdivision of this sum is possible, it would be justifiable to regard a substantial proportion of it as having been devoted to the development of post school physical recreation.

⁷³Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., pp. 19 - 20.

⁷⁴Ibid.

As part of its capital investment programme, the following loans were sanctioned by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government.

TABLE I

SWIMMING BATHS

1955/56	£ 500,737
1956/57	698,063
1957/58	667,891
1958/59	2,004,452
1959/60	1,938,139 ⁷⁵

TABLE II

PHYSICAL TRAINING AND RECREATION PLAYING
FIELDS, PAVILIONS AND TENNIS COURTS.

1955/56	£ 819,664
1956/57	202,336
1957/58	242,430
1958/59	786,821
1959/60	1,301,099 ⁷⁶

⁷⁵ Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit.

⁷⁶ Ibid., p. 21.

TABLE III

PUBLIC WALKS AND PLEASURE GROUNDS, PUBLIC PARKS, OPEN
SPACES, CHILDREN'S PLAYGROUNDS AND FACILITIES
FOR PHYSICAL RECREATION.

1955/56	£ 1,229,673
1956/57	251,735
1957/58	334,200
1958/59	1,145,347
1959/60	2,538,125 ⁷⁷

These figures are evidence of the marked relaxation of the restrictions on capital investment in recreation over recent years.

Besides the expenditure by local authorities and local education authorities on physical recreation, there is direct expenditure by the Ministry of Education in this field.

During the financial year 1960-61, the approved estimate of the Ministry's expenditure was £ 409,000.⁷⁸ Of this amount the Ministry spent £ 174,000 on grants to national voluntary bodies. The remaining £ 235,000 was given as grants in aid of capital expenditure by local voluntary organizations.

Of the £ 174,000 allocated for grants to national voluntary bodies, the C.C.P.R. received £ 140,000; the National Council of Social Services £ 12,000; and the English Folk Dance and Song Society received £ 7,500. The remaining sum of about £ 12,000 was provided for coaching

⁷⁷Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., p. 28.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 22.

grants to the following governing bodies--the Amateur Athletic Association, the Amateur Fencing Association, the Amateur Swimming Association, the All England Women's Hockey Association, the British Judo Association, the English Table Tennis Association and the Lawn Tennis Association. These grants were offered towards the salaries of coaches, the maximum being 80% of salary, or £ 1,000 (whichever is less) for each full time coach, with a small allowance for clerical expenses.⁷⁹

Of the £ 235,000 available for capital grants to local voluntary organizations, £ 100,000 was used for the purposes of physical education, playing fields, swimming baths, pavilions and equipment. The remainder was used for projects concerned with the premises and equipment of village halls and community centres, and was not solely for purposes of physical recreation, although in fact the premises so provided were used quite extensively for various physical activities.⁸⁰

In recent years there has been some extension of the Ministry's awards of coaching grants to national voluntary bodies, three (judo, swimming and table tennis) having been made for the first time in 1961.⁸¹

Account should be also taken of the Ministry's expenditure on direct grants to Youth Service Organizations. This amounted to £ 425,000 for the financial year 1960/61.⁸² Of this sum part was

⁷⁹Central Council for Physical Recreation, op. cit., p. 22.

⁸⁰Ibid.

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²Ibid., p. 23.

devoted to the promotion of post school physical recreation among young people as part of their further education.

Molyneux said that a government announcement on June 8, 1962, revealed that coaching grants were being offered for the first time to the Amateur Weight Lifting Association, and to the Amateur Basketball Association.

Summary

Education in England has undergone significant developments, particularly after the Second World War. The early concept of education for a select group has disappeared, and education for all is the modern philosophy.

The system of voluntary schools has been replaced to a great degree by state financed schools under the direct administration of Local Education Authorities. Voluntary schools of three categories remain, but the general trend is towards a closer relationship with the State.

Curriculum changes have kept pace with the social changes, and over the years physical education has come to occupy a prominent place in the school programme. In the early years specialist colleges for the training of men and women teachers were established, and the general trend now is for a closer association with the Universities. In the field of sport, while voluntary organizations remain, the lack of recreational facilities has involved the State in a closer relationship with the agencies administering recreational programmes. This can be seen in increased financial contributions by the central government.

⁸³D. D. Molyneux, op. cit., p. 8.

CHAPTER IV

GHANA

The Land and the People

The state of Ghana, until 1957 known as the Gold Coast, lies midway on the Guinea littoral of West Africa. The usually accepted limits of West Africa are the Senegal River on the West, and the Cameroons on the East, while the Sahara forms a convenient boundary to the North. From the geographical point of view, the divisions of this vast territory are latitudinal; first a band of humid tropical forest which is interrupted near the coast by areas of mangrove and savannah; second a wooded savannah to the north, and third a dry treeless savannah stretching far into the interior, which eventually merges into the Sahara.⁸⁴

Roughly rectangular in shape, the country lies entirely within the tropics, midway on the southern shore of the bulge of Africa, on the Gulf of Guinea. Physically the entire territory can be divided into four easily recognized areas--the coastal lands, the Ashanti plateau, the plains of the Volta and its tributaries and the northern plateau grass lands.

⁸⁴F. M. Bourret, Ghana, the Road to Independence (Stanford University Press, California, 1961), p. 1.

The coastal lands averaging from twenty to forty miles in width, contain over half of the people of the entire country. The 1948 census showed the distribution of the population as follows:

TABLE IV

POPULATION FIGURES 1948 CENSUS⁸⁵

Coastal lands	2,050,235
Ashanti	818,944
Northern territories.	866,503
Volta	382,768
Total	<u>4,118,450</u>

The four main areas are subdivided into nine administrative regions, namely the Northern region, the Brong-Ahafo region, the Upper region, the Central region, the Ashanti, the Volta, the Togo, the Eastern and the Western regions. The important urban centres are Sekondi, Takoradi, Cape Coast, Kumasi, and Accra, the capital city. The natural resources can be considered under four heads: agriculture, forestry, livestock and mining.⁸⁶

⁸⁵Gold Coast Annual Report (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1949), p. 10.

⁸⁶Gold Coast Annual Report (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1946), pp. 35 - 36.

Among the agricultural exports, cocoa holds first place. Ghana produces over one third of the world's supply. The following figures show the rapid development of the cocoa industry.

TABLE V
COCOA DEVELOPMENT⁸⁷

Years	Five Year Average by tons
1901 - 1905	3,172
1906 - 1910	14,784
1911 - 1915	51,819
1916 - 1920	106,072
1921 - 1925	186,329
1926 - 1930	218,895

The population can be divided roughly into two great groups--the pure Negro of the forest area, and the Negroid type of the Sudan. These groups are further subdivided into the Ewe and the Ga speaking peoples of the south (Negro), and the peoples of the Mossi-Dagomba states in the Northern territories (Negroid).⁸⁸ There are, of course, areas where the two types have intermingled, and characteristics are less clean cut.

⁸⁷Gold Coast Hand Book (London: 1937), p. 38.

⁸⁸F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 8.

English is the official language, but there are two major local language groups known as the KWA unit, and the GUR unit.⁸⁹ Apart from these, there are a number of smaller language groups, some of whose languages especially in Eastern Togoland, appear to be quite distinct from those of the major groupings.

British Occupation and Policy

Trade, particularly in "human raw material", brought the British to the Gold Coast. Bourret⁹⁰ emphasises that while the merchants of many nations took part, the British had the lead, and in some years transported as many as fifty thousand slaves in the Great Triangle (Gold Coast to Florida, to the West Indies).

Conflicting views have been expressed as to the philosophy motivating various practices of the British administration in Ghana. Cohen⁹¹ is of the view that training the people to run their own institutions was the main distinguishing characteristic of the British administration. The practices during the administration of Sir Gordon Guggisberg tend to lend support to this.

⁸⁹Department of the U.S. Army, Special Area Warfare Handbook on Ghana (University of Washington Press, 1962), p. 4.

⁹⁰F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 13.

⁹¹Sir A. Cohen, British Policy in Changing Africa (Northwestern University Press, U.S.A., 1959), p. 107.

Sir Gordon Guggisberg arrived in Accra in October 1919, to face a very difficult situation.⁹² The war had not only reduced official staff to the absolute minimum and prevented much development that was pressingly needed, but had also stirred up unrest among some of the population. In approaching the existing problems, he stated that his main object was:

The general progress of the people of the Gold Coast towards a higher civilization, and the keystone of this progress is education through schools and other social services.⁹³

In contrast to Cohen's view, More expressed the opinion that:

The colony was used for free looting and plundering; establishment of trading stations and privileged monopoly trading companies, for the extermination of the original inhabitants and the establishment of colonial settlements by immigration.⁹⁴

Under Guggisberg's administration, the Governor in Council formed the basis of government, and direct local representation was unknown. The governor was the chief administrator, assisted by an executive and a legislative council, and a staff of political and technical officers.⁹⁵

⁹²Baron Sidney Olivier, Sir Frederick Gordon Guggisberg (London: Dictionary of National Biography 1922 - 1930, 1937).

⁹³Governor's address to the Legislative Council (Gold Coast Gazette, March 17, 1923), p. 349.

⁹⁴S. S. More, Remodelling of Democracy for Afro-Asian Nations (Bombay: Allied Publishers, 1962), p. 26.

⁹⁵F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 36.

The Executive Council consisted of the following British officials: the Colonial Secretary, the Chief Commissioners of Ashanti and of the Northern regions, the Attorney General, the Financial Secretary, the Director of Medical Services, and the Secretary for Native Affairs.⁹⁶

To assist the executive in the day to day administration of the various areas, District Commissioners were appointed. For this, much sympathy, firmness of will and initiative were considered necessary, and graduates of Oxford and Cambridge Universities were appointed by the Colonial Office.⁹⁷ (The significance of this in terms of the approach to education is emphasized in a later chapter.)

The local African was apparently dissatisfied with his own participation in the administration of the colony. There were appeals for increased African participation in the European administration, protests against legislation, as well as outright demands for increased self government.⁹⁸

In the nineteen thirties, a local Movement was formed with the aim of strengthening the bonds between the different sections of the community, and working out specific plans for social and political reform. However, Jahoda observed that these efforts were not viewed sympathetically by the government, and a delegation from the Movement met with a rebuff from the governor.⁹⁹

⁹⁶F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 37.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 38.

⁹⁸Ibid., p. 39.

⁹⁹Gustav Jahoda, White Man (Oxford University Press, 1961), p. 10.

For the period between the first and second world wars, this state of affairs continued with little change, and Apter claimed that:

For the greater part, the mass of the people of the Gold Coast seemed remote from participation in central government political affairs. For many of the British administrators, the quiet reforming process seemed the logical way in which the Gold Coast political administration would survive.¹⁰⁰

However, this was not to be. The Second World War enabled native soldiers to travel and to adopt new ideas. A slow restlessness developed and Apter noted that faith in the old order was rudely shattered by the establishment and rapid growth of the Convention People's Party headed by Kwame Nkrumah after 1948, which directed its aim against colonial status and towards independence for the entire Gold Coast.¹⁰¹ In reviewing the reasons for the meteoric success of Nkrumah's new political movement, it would appear that these lay in education, economics and social welfare.

Education

What were the principles underlying education under the British regime? According to Curle:

The conception of the aim of education was that it should make useful citizens and when we say useful citizens we mean literally citizens who would be of use to us. The conception was one of exploitation

¹⁰⁰ D. E. Apter, The Gold Coast in Transition (Princeton University Press, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 1955), p. 38.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

and development for the benefit of the people of Great Britain. It was to this purpose that such education as was given was directed.¹⁰²

He is well supported by Jahoda, who commented that apart from personal influences, there were other ways in which education tended to undermine rather than strengthen African self confidence¹⁰³ and among the most important of these must be reckoned the content of school books. Many of these were quite unsuitable because they had been intended for British children. Much of the content was incomprehensible in a radically different culture.

Batten¹⁰⁴ is strongly critical of the activities of the missionaries who pioneered education in the Gold Coast. He condemns their use of education of a European type as a powerful weapon in spreading and establishing their own interests. The general approach seemed to have been very impressionistic and expressing this, Curle said:

The British at any rate believed that a literary and classical education was the best preparation anyone could have for virtually any form of life. It is reported that in 1864, the Inspector General of Education examined an African student at the Lovedale Institution in Greek Testament, an Ode to Anacron, and the forty seventh proposition of Euclid Book 1. The great Colonial administrators were all nurtured

¹⁰²Adam Curle, Educational Strategy for Developing Societies (Tavistock Publications, 1963), p. 89.

¹⁰³Gustav Jahoda, op. cit., p. 98.

¹⁰⁴T. R. Batten, Problems of African Development (London University Press, 1960), p. 27.

in ancient history and philosophy. What greater benefit could they confer upon the African than to impart to him this splendid knowledge.¹⁰⁵

Both Hans¹⁰⁶ and Kandel¹⁰⁷ condemned these impressionistic approaches in their principles of education. Kandel in particular stresses that the educational systems and practices of one nation cannot be transported to another nation or to other peoples without profound adaptations and modifications.¹⁰⁸

Formal Western education was introduced to the Gold Coast by missionaries, as part of their effort to Christianise and civilise the Africans.¹⁰⁹ The central government did not take an active part in education until the very late nineteenth century when it set up a Board of Education to inspect schools and to standardize their management. The Board also established grants to be paid to schools which met government standards, and laid down regulations for the recognition by the government of new schools.¹¹⁰

¹⁰⁵ Adam Curle, op. cit., p. 89.

¹⁰⁶ Nicholas Hans, op. cit., pp. 6 - 14.

¹⁰⁷ I. L. Kandel, op. cit., p. 14.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ Department of U.S. Army, op. cit., p. 4.

¹¹⁰ Ibid., p. 13.

After World War I, the government increased its role in the development of educational facilities in the country. Sir Gordon Guggisberg formulated a new education policy, recognizing the need for improved teacher training, more high standard secondary schools, equal opportunity for boys and girls and greater emphasis on vocational training, instead of concentrating on a classical British education.¹¹¹

As a positive step towards achieving this aim, he established Achimota College. One of its objectives was:

To correct the mistakes which have been made in the educational system of Africa. It will take the African boy and girl at the age of six, and carry them through the Kindergarten to the University courses. It will give to the African, not only professional training, but also technical courses that will teach both boys and girls the dignity of labour.¹¹²

The curriculum included the usual primary and secondary subjects, a commercial course, a one year agricultural course, four years of teacher training, and a college department in which the students took intermediate courses to prepare for the external examination of the University of London in Arts, Science, Economics and Engineering.¹¹³

¹¹¹F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 134.

¹¹²Report of Achimota College 1926 - 1927, Accra.

¹¹³F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 136.

In 1938, there were 679 pupils enrolled at Achimota, 232 of whom were girls. These included sixty in kindergarten, ninety in lower primary, one hundred and forty three at the upper primary and one hundred and eighty at the secondary levels. The training college division contained eighty six boys and sixty six girls, while there were thirty two students in university and twenty two in special courses.¹¹⁴

There was great criticism of Achimota College, and many felt that the institution was too isolated from the educational life of the Gold Coast, and that if some of the large sums spent there had been used to raise the general level of education it would have resulted in benefits to a wider group of students.¹¹⁵

In 1938 there were only twenty four government schools, four hundred and twenty four assisted and about four hundred and fifty seven unassisted institutions in the Gold Coast. Of these the primary schools were providing education for about ninety thousand children. This represented only about fifteen percent of the school population.¹¹⁶

¹¹⁴ Gold Coast Annual Report, 1938; p. 81.

¹¹⁵ K. Horn, The Future of Education in the Gold Coast (Achimota Discussion Group, Quo Vadimus or Gold Coast Future), p. 44.

¹¹⁶ Gold Coast Annual Report, 1938; p. 77.

The money set aside for all educational purposes including Achimota in the 1938 budget was £ 270,000, which was 9.34 percent of the total expenditure and about £ 3 to £ 4 for each child.¹¹⁷

In general, the educational pyramid had a broad base of primary school students, topped by a smaller but still broad layer of middle school students, and an extremely small secondary and post secondary school population in relation to the whole. In addition to the imbalance between the various levels of the educational system, there was also an uneven geographic distribution of schools and students.¹¹⁸ This inadequacy is clearly reflected in the statement that seventy to eighty per cent of the population over the age of fifteen was still illiterate by 1950.¹¹⁹

Up to 1950, education was supervised by the Education Department, with a Director of Education at its head. He was assisted by Inspectors of schools, whose main task was at the primary level to ensure that the "Three R's" were being taught as efficiently as possible.

¹¹⁷Report on the Finances and Accounts of the Gold Coast for the year 1938 - 1939, (Accra), p. 11.

¹¹⁸Department of the U.S. Army, op. cit., p. 10.

¹¹⁹Ibid.

In other areas of public welfare conflicting opinions exist. Jahoda has put forward the argument that the British approach to welfare was intimately bound up with the concept of labour.¹²⁰

Apter is even more positive. He said that:

The British for the most part succeeded in their attempt to have their colonies live within their means. They failed, however, to enlarge those means sufficiently to expand the social welfare benefits in important areas which the new independence morality has been emphasizing as appropriate.¹²¹

Wallbank supports this by claiming that Britain had followed a policy of "laissez-faire", in the belief that government responsibility was to maintain law and order, but to proceed very slowly on matters of social policy and welfare.¹²²

Bourret is less critical of the British administration, and has suggested that some progress was made. Development was not always guided in the wisest channels, and there were grave problems in the fields of education, public health, and other social services yet to be solved. In spite of these defects, argues Bourret, the positive contribution of the British administration was great.¹²³

¹²⁰Gustav Jahoda, op. cit., pp. 12 - 23.

¹²¹D. E. Apter, op. cit., p. 121.

¹²²T. Walter Wallbank, Contemporary Africa (Princeton, New Jersey, C.D. Van Nostrand, 1964), p. 47.

¹²³F. M. Bourret, op. cit., pp. 141 - 142.

A strong colonial power could protect the economic interests of a comparatively backward area in the complicated and highly competitive situation which characterised world trade in the first half of the twentieth century. It could provide capital for public utilities and could give stability and continuity to plans for well ordered development. This, Bourret suggests, the British administration did, and although the support was insufficient or unwisely directed, the result of the whole appears heavily balanced in favour of the Africans.¹²⁴

The following comparative figures for the Gold Coast (British Colony) and Liberia (American supported) support Bourret's arguments:

TABLE VI

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS FOR THE GOLD COAST
AND LIBERIA IN 1936.¹²⁵

£ = \$4.00

	<u>Gold Coast</u>	<u>Liberia</u>
Population	3,618,376	1,500,000
Area (sq.mi.)	91,000	43,000
Revenue	\$15,098,984	\$ 770,414
Expenditure	\$15,667,968	\$ 708,443
Schools	905	161
Pupil attendance	90,000	10,000

¹²⁴F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 141.

¹²⁵Statesman's Year Book, 1940, Annual Reports for the Gold Coast and Liberia.

The grave problems in the fields of education, public health and other social services,¹²⁶ favoured the spirit of nationalism advanced by Nkrumah and his political party in 1948. Indeed Nkrumah said:

A feeling of frustration among the educated Africans who saw no way of ever obtaining political power under the colonial regime made fertile ground for national agitation. It was consciousness of political and economic hardships and the social unrest after the war which led to the crisis of 1948.¹²⁷

A reaction to the existing social conditions set in and a new movement developed which brought Nkrumah into power in 1950, and 1954, and culminated in an independent Ghana in 1957.

Physical Education and Sport to 1950

It is difficult to find a comprehensive structure of physical education in Ghana prior to 1950. The concept of education was fitting one's self for the "professions". As Curle stated the general approach to education was classical.¹²⁸ This no doubt was as a result of the tradition of the colonial administrators, who were themselves of the classical "Oxbridge" pattern. But perhaps, as Jahoda mentioned, there was a deliberate approach towards a narrow educational orientation.¹²⁹

¹²⁶F. M. Bourret, op. cit., pp. 141 - 142.

¹²⁷Kwame Nkrumah, The Autobiography of Kwame Nkrumah (London: Thomas Nelson and Sons, Ltd., 1957), p. 47.

¹²⁸Adam Curle, op. cit., p. 89.

¹²⁹Gustav Jahoda, op. cit., pp. 12 - 23.

Even though as far back as 1925, Governor Guggisberg in his plans for education had stressed the value of games and Scout methods in the building of character so necessary if the African was to be trained for leadership,¹³⁰ yet there was no definite comprehensive programme of physical education throughout the country. The British Syllabus of Physical Training 1933,¹³¹ was in keeping with the impressionistic approach. This was duly transported to Ghana, and was made available through the government printers at Accra.

There was, however, no universal programme of physical training in the various regions. It would appear that the classical orientation of the colonial administrators affected in no small measure, the few aspiring élite who were fortunate enough to attain secondary education. There was no time for physical training. Everyone aspired to the professions of Law and Medicine, or entrance to the Civil Service or some other form of government employment. It would appear that this attitude was perhaps indirectly encouraged by the administration in the lack of provision for formal training and financial assistance directly for physical training.

Social stratification played an integral part in sports development in Ghana. The society was divided broadly into the following social sectors.¹³² At the upper level of the social stratum, there were the colonial administrators and their families.

¹³⁰ F. M. Bourret, op. cit., p. 33.

¹³¹ Board of Education, op. cit.

¹³² Department of the U.S. Army, op. cit., pp. 71 - 78.

Sport formed an important part of their recreation. There were facilities for lawn tennis, cricket, soccer, rugby, polo and golf. At once it can be seen how close a relationship existed between these sports and those played in England. This apparently was the general pattern.

At the second level, there was a token middle class, the local élite who had secured some sort of secondary education. This small middle class existed only in name, for no formal facilities for recreation and sport existed for this group. In this they were akin to the third level of the social stratum--the lower level, in which the bulk of the population found themselves. Hagen, in his definition of backward societies claimed that there is no vertical mobility and no opportunity for achieved status. All status is ascribed.¹³³ This definition is very apt for Ghana at this period.

Native initiative helped in no small measure to fill the vacuum, and English games like soccer and cricket filtered down to the villages where teams were organized. The Ghana News condemned this lack of interest in this aspect of the welfare of the native, by saying that in the past during the colonial era, this aspect of their lives was left unsponsored by the colonial government.¹³⁴ This view is supported by Apter, who is critical of the British approach. He claims that the colonial administration failed to emphasize the establishment of adequate recreational facilities.¹³⁵

¹³³ E. Hagen, On Theory of Social Change (Centre for International Studies, Mass. Inst. of Tech., Dorsey Press, 1962), pp. 12 - 19.

¹³⁴ Ghana Reconstructs (Accra, Ghana: Government Printer, Vol. 4, No. 6), p. 3.

¹³⁵ D. E. Apter, op. cit., p. 121.

CHAPTER V

THE NEW ERA - 1951-1965

Educational Policy

What was the philosophy of the new government with regard to education? It was a philosophy which seemed to have been based on universality. Curle has advanced the view that in the great awakening, using Myrdal's apt term for the universal surge towards freedom and national betterment, education is the first thing to aim for, the thing everybody understands. For education broadly seen is the most effective means of altering the outlook of a people.¹³⁶

The principles expressed seemed to have been adopted by the new government. Rivkin, quoting from a speech by the new Prime Minister, Kwame Nkrumah, has stated:

The government attaches great importance to educational advancement as one means of transferring the society of Ghana to a higher standard. Our goal is to achieve a full universal primary and middle school education within the shortest possible time.¹³⁷

The significance of education in the new social structure was pointed out by Bartlett who claimed that no people in the world have such a passion and such a need to educate itself in a very short time as the people of Ghana. Its expenditure on education rose from £ 744,000 in 1948 to £ 2,509,000 in 1952.¹³⁸

¹³⁶Adam Curle, op. cit., p. 84.

¹³⁷Arnold Rivkin, The African Presence in World Affairs (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1963), p. 106.

¹³⁸Vernon Bartlett, Struggle for Africa (London: Muller, 1953), p. 124.

To achieve its aim of transferring the Society of Ghana to a higher standard through education, the new government created in 1951 the Ministry of Education, whose first measure was the preparation of an accelerated development plan for education. The basic aim and the most striking feature of the plan was the rapid expansion of primary education.¹³⁹

When the plan was implemented in 1952, over 335,000 children were enrolled in primary schools. Middle school enrollment was 80,000. There were existing then 3,069 primary schools and 667 middle schools, compared with 1,081 primary schools with 144,302 pupils and 511 middle schools in 1950.¹⁴⁰

The Structure of Education

Pre-Primary Schools

Pre-Primary education consists of day nurseries and infant classes. Day nurseries were designed for children of working mothers, and offer supervised recreation and instruction. No mention is made of pre-primary nurseries prior to 1950, so it is assumed that these were established in the new era. In 1961 there were fourteen such nurseries in Accra, and a few in other areas. Infant classes are attached to a primary school and admit children at the age of five to teach them the beginnings of reading, writing and arithmetic.¹⁴¹

¹³⁹ Accelerated Development Plan for Education (Accra: Government Printers, 1951), p. 5.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid.

¹⁴¹ Department of U. S. Army, op. cit., p. 75.

Primary schools

The six-year primary school forms the basis of the educational structure and compulsion was introduced in August, 1961. Entrance is at the age of six years. In December 1959, there were 3,800 primary schools with a total enrollment of 483,425 children. In the 1962-63 school year there were 6,873 primary schools in the country and plans were afoot to construct 1,000 new primary schools in the 1963-64 school year.¹⁴²

Middle schools

Middle school is entered at the end of the primary school course, and offers a course lasting four years, two years of which are a necessary preliminary to secondary education. The aim of these schools is to supplement the training received in the primary school; but as envisaged by the government, as the quality of primary school training improves, the middle school would then take on the character of a modern secondary school, offering courses of a vocational nature.¹⁴³

At the end of 1959, there were 143,726 students attending 1,394 middle schools throughout the country. This, however, represented only about seventy-six percent of the primary school graduates. In the 1962-63 school year there were 204,888 pupils attending middle schools.¹⁴⁴

¹⁴²Ghana (Accra, Government Printers), pp. 1 - 4.

¹⁴³Ibid.

¹⁴⁴Department of the U.S. Army, op. cit., p. 76.

Altogether, therefore, there were in the 1962-63 school year about 1,006,000 children in the primary and middle schools; that is, about one-seventh of the entire population of Ghana. This is about twice the figure for 1957 and five times the 1950 enrollment.¹⁴⁵

Secondary schools

Since independence in 1957, Ghana's public secondary school system has grown at an unprecedented rate. At the end of 1956, there were only thirty-seven secondary schools within the public education system in the whole country, and some regions had very few or none at all.¹⁴⁶

By the 1961-62 school year, the number of schools had risen to sixty-eight, with a total enrollment of 18,000. These numbers increased in the 1962-63 school year to seventy-four and 22,000 respectively and in the 1963-64 school year the number of schools rose to eighty-five, with a total enrollment of 28,136. Ten of the secondary schools are girls' boarding schools, and fifty-three are co-educational. The rest are boys' schools.¹⁴⁷

Entrance to these secondary schools in the public education system is by written competitive examination. This is conducted by the West African Examinations Council on behalf of the Ministry of Education. Candidates are normally drawn from the upper three forms of the middle schools and the average age of admission is fourteen years.

¹⁴⁵Ghana (Accra: Government Printers), p. 3.

¹⁴⁶Ghana News (Accra, Government Printers, May 1965, Vol. 3, No. 5), p. 2.

¹⁴⁷Fact Sheets on Ghana (Accra, Government Printer, F.S. 39, April 1964), pp. 1 - 5.

The length of the secondary school course is four years, at the end of which time candidates are presented for the General Certificate of the West African Examinations Council. Secondary education in Ghana is free with respect to books and plans are afoot to make it free. A majority of the students, however, receive one form or another of government bursaries. In the 1962-63 financial year the central government spent £ 1,300,000 on secondary education, and the estimated expenditure for the 1963-64 financial year was £ 1,400,000.¹⁴⁸

Universities

The main institutions of higher learning are:

The University of Ghana.

The Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology.

The University College of Cape Coast.

The University of Ghana, founded in 1948, is the oldest degree granting institution. Founded along British lines, it held for many years a special relationship with London University, and was awarded autonomy in 1961. The Kwame Nkrumah University, founded in 1952, confines its courses to engineering, applied sciences and technology. A new university was proposed in 1964, the University College of Agriculture, to co-ordinate and develop teaching and research in agriculture, throughout the country.

¹⁴⁸Fact Sheets on Ghana (Accra: Government Printer, F.S. 39, April, 1964), p. 4.

In 1964 there were 13,000 students attending University in Ghana. Further expansion was planned to increase this figure to 25,000 by 1970.¹⁴⁹

Physical Education and Sports--Policy

In contrast to the previous era, when the literature reviewed has so far made little or no mention of physical education and sports development, statements in the new era seemed to project a new importance to physical education and sports. The possibility of this was considered as far back as 1948, when the first Pan African Congress advocated the development and encouragement of cultural life by the provision of community centres and playing fields.¹⁵⁰

It would appear that developments in physical education were geared to the spirit of nationalism. The possibility of this was pointed out by Kandel when he observed that the real meaning of nationalism as a spiritual force is recognized, and that national culture is considered as the interplay of individual and group interests, intellectual, moral, and physical. He stressed further:

The organization of national systems of education involves more than the mere provision of schools. The importance of physical well being has long been recognized by the inclusion of some form of physical training or the provision of facilities

¹⁴⁹Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 3, No. 1, January, 1965), p. 2.

¹⁵⁰George Padmore (editor), History of the Pan African Congress (1952, 23rd resolution), p. 61.

for games and sports as a regular part of the educational programme.¹⁵¹

Kendel's remarks are significant, for in outlining the government's policy on sports and physical education Nkrumah said:

In the field of sports, it is the concern of my government that an independent Gold Coast shall stand second to none, and it is our intention to encourage national competitions, which will produce sportsmen and athletes for national and international contests. These competitions must run through the entire educational system in order to provide us with continuous supplies of distinguished sportsmen.¹⁵²

Even though the statement presents some measure of immaturity, the principles underlying it are significant. The purposefulness, and the implied involvement of the central government are to be noted.

Organization and Practice of School Physical Education

It would appear that as of 1957, the year of independence, the compulsory aspect of physical education in schools emerged with a new clarity. This, perhaps, was in keeping with the central government's official policy on the place of sports and athletic competitions in the school curriculum.¹⁵³

In the primary schools the ordinary general teacher teaches physical education for twenty to thirty minutes daily. The programme involves activities designed to develop body awareness, and rhythmic

¹⁵¹I. L. Kandel, op. cit., p. 4.

¹⁵²Kwame Nkrumah, I Speak of Freedom (Heinemann, 1961), p. 58.

¹⁵³Ibid.

movements and familiar games particularly of the running and chasing type are included.¹⁵⁴

Group activities are stressed and in the upper primary school pupils are introduced to team games such as soccer, cricket and rounders. Gymnastics is also done at this level. Kennedy observed how satisfying it was to witness these classes held normally out of doors.¹⁵⁵

At the post primary level (middle and secondary schools) students take part in two forty minute periods of physical education plus one ninety minute period of games a week.¹⁵⁶ The Ghana News reported that:

Those who are keen on sports have football, hockey, lawn tennis, table tennis, basketball and baseball to choose from. Most schools are provided with well levelled, beautiful playing fields and other places of recreation.¹⁵⁷

Physical education is taught in all approved secondary schools, by physical education graduates, and students are required to wear prescribed physical education uniforms, which include shorts, shirt and tennis shoes. Normally all work is done outdoors utilizing the

¹⁵⁴International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Physical Education in Ghana, Eighth International Congress Report (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: July 27-31, 1965), p. 43.

¹⁵⁵R. E. Kennedy, Physical Education and Athletics in Western Africa (Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Vol. 33, No. 3, March 1962), p. 18.

¹⁵⁶M. Whitfield and T. A. Hart, Physical Education and Athletics in West Africa (Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Vol. 33, No. 3, March 1962).

¹⁵⁷Ghana (Accra, Government Printer, F.S. 39, April 1964), p. 4.

climate as fully as possible, and the programme includes gymnastics, cricket, soccer, tennis, volleyball, grass hockey, boxing and athletics.

The programme is compulsory, and enthusiastic participation is greatly encouraged.¹⁵⁸

In 1962, Whitfield reported that just about all of the sixty-five secondary schools were staffed with trained physical education specialists, both male and female.¹⁵⁹ Sports competitions are held among the secondary schools on a district, regional and national basis, with the national finals being held in the National Stadium at Accra.

In a few of the larger towns, apart from the specialist teachers attached to individual schools, there are physical education "detached" teachers who are assigned special responsibility over six selected schools at a time. Their duties include the following:

1. To assist class teachers to interpret correctly current school text books on physical education and games, with a view to enabling them to select suitable activities for the children.
2. To encourage both teachers and pupils to make and use improvised apparatus and to give demonstration lessons on the wise use of apparatus in general.
3. To teach skills and help organize school games.

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M. Whitfield and T. A. Hart, op. cit., p. 19.

159 Ibid., p. 20.

4. To assist schools in the construction of games courts and pitches and to advise on their maintenance.
5. To teach teachers the technique of refereeing and umpiring games played at school.
6. To encourage the formation of school sports associations and to help organize annual sports meetings for schools at local, district or regional levels.¹⁶⁰

To facilitate the work of the physical education "detached" teacher, the time table in each of the six schools in his charge is adapted to ensure that maximum benefit is derived by all teachers during the period he is temporarily attached to their school.¹⁶¹

Supervision of physical education in primary, middle and secondary schools is done by a team of physical education organizers. At the top of the administrative ladder is the senior organizer who is attached to the Ministry of Education; below him are the regional organizers (about nine in number) and below this group are the district organizers (about forty in number).¹⁶²

The duties of physical education organizers include administration, organization and overall supervision of all work done in schools in his district or region. They also conduct refresher courses for teachers, give special demonstration lessons in schools and organize school sports.¹⁶³

¹⁶⁰International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, op. cit., p. 44.

¹⁶¹Ibid.

¹⁶²Ibid.

¹⁶³Ibid.

The Programme at Universities

Due to the close relationship with Britain, the early universities developed along the Oxford and Cambridge pattern, with the emphasis on the arts and the humanities. Indeed, the oldest university (the University of Ghana), was a replica of the older type British university.¹⁶⁴

Participation in sports was on a voluntary basis, with the students organizing their own programmes. With the spread of "nationalism" and the socialist doctrine, informality began to be changed to formality. The voluntary activities were beginning to be directed by the university administration. The Ghana News said that the most significant feature of Ghana's new system of education was the attempt to gear educational policy to the social and cultural needs of the state.¹⁶⁵

Official action with regard to physical education at the universities culminated with an invitation in 1965 to William L. Steel of Manchester University to advise on the establishment of a Department of Physical Education at the University College of Science Education.¹⁶⁶ The recommendations so far are regarded as classified information. However, with Ghana's recent financial troubles, developments in physical education with special reference to the establishment of this new department, might be affected.

¹⁶⁴Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, Jan. 6, 1964, Vol. 2, No. 1), pp. 1 - 2.

¹⁶⁵Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, May 1965, Vol. 3, No. 5), p. 1.

¹⁶⁶Ibid., p. 7.

Professional Training - Physical Education and Sport

Ghana News has reported that:

The training and supply of teachers is perhaps the most important single item in the development of a national educational system, and in Ghana the last decade which has seen an educational revolution has also brought remarkable changes in teacher training.¹⁶⁷

Curle supports this view. He has suggested that in no possible sense was Ghana provided with an adequate basis for the enormous expansions which have taken place.¹⁶⁸

In 1950 there were nineteen teacher training colleges with an enrollment of 1,777 students. By 1957 the number had increased to thirty with 3,873 students in training. At the beginning of the 1962-63 school year, the number had risen to thirty-nine and by 1964 there was a further increase to forty-six. In 1965 this number had risen to forty-seven, with an enrollment of over eight thousand students.¹⁶⁹ Of these, forty-six are general training colleges, and one, Winneba, is a specialist college for the training of teachers in particular subject areas.¹⁷⁰

¹⁶⁷ Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, April 1964, F.S. 36), p. 1.

¹⁶⁸ Adam Curle, op. cit., p. 93.

¹⁶⁹ Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, April 1964, F.S. 36), p. 1.

¹⁷⁰ International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, op. cit., p. 45.

At the general training colleges, two types of training are offered, one leading to the award of a "B" certificate, and the other leading to the award of an "A" certificate. Entry to the certificate "B" course is reserved to the students holding the Middle School Leaving certificate and is of four years' duration.¹⁷¹ The Ghana News has reported that:

The first three years of the four year course is devoted solely to raising the academic and educational background of the Middle School Leavers to a level roughly equivalent to the School Certificate standard. The last year is then spent on professional work, that is the study of the theory and practice of teaching including the principles of education.¹⁷²

Entry to the certificate "A" course is reserved for teachers with the certificate "B" together with one year of professional training. In the general training colleges, teachers are trained to teach all subjects including physical education for the primary schools, and physical education is a compulsory subject in the final teacher training examination. Personal and recreational gymnastics are taught and students are encouraged to take an active interest in all forms of games and sports so that they might be able to teach these games and sporting activities to children in the primary schools.¹⁷³

¹⁷¹Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, April 1964, F.S. 36), pp. 2 - 5.

¹⁷²Ibid., p. 4.

¹⁷³International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, op. cit., p. 45.

In addition to physical education lessons the students are taught the basic fundamentals and techniques of teaching major and minor games including soccer, grass hockey, cricket, volleyball, netball, lawn tennis, table tennis, rounders, stoolball and track and field.¹⁷⁴

At the Winneba College, established in 1958, specialist teachers are prepared for service in the secondary and post secondary institutions.¹⁷⁵ There are two types of courses at this college. The first, a two year course is offered to teachers with the "A" certificate and leads to the award of a specialist certificate in physical education. The second, a four year course is opened primarily to students with at least the West African Certificate or an approved equivalent qualification. This leads to the award of a Diploma in Physical Education.¹⁷⁶

The programme of work at the Department of Physical Education at Winneba includes the following:

1. Theory and methods of physical education.
2. Theory and methods of games.
3. Anatomy and physiology.
4. Health education.

¹⁷⁴Ibid.

¹⁷⁵Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, April 1964), p. 5.

¹⁷⁶Ibid., p. 4.

5. Educational psychology.
6. Principles of education.
7. Swimming.
8. Movement and dance, including Ghanaian dances.
9. Camping.¹⁷⁷

Games played and taught include soccer, hockey, cricket, badminton, table tennis, basketball, netball, volleyball, lawn tennis and track and field. Twenty-five trained teachers are normally graduated each year.¹⁷⁸

Between 1951 and 1957 training was done exclusively in Great Britain, and in this period, four men received their diplomas from that country. Since 1957 four men and two women attended diploma courses in Britain. Only one person has received a degree from North America, although many have attended short courses in the United States of America.¹⁷⁹

In keeping with the socialist philosophy of the government, students are being sent for training to the socialist countries and West Germany.¹⁸⁰ The government of Ghana, perhaps reflecting the effect of British tradition, does not recognize the North American bachelor's

¹⁷⁷International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation, op. cit., p. 46.

¹⁷⁸M. Whitfield and T. A. Hart, op. cit., p. 20.

¹⁷⁹Ibid.

¹⁸⁰Information Bulletin (Accra: Government Printers, May - June, 1965), pp. 1 - 2.

degree as equal to the British diploma in physical education. In order for an American with a degree from the United States to teach in Ghana, he is required to have a master's degree while a person may teach with a Diploma from Europe.¹⁸¹

The salary structure for specialist teachers of physical education is very favourable, when compared with other positions in the Ministry of Education. Diploma graduates are on the scale £ 625 to £ 1240 per annum. This compares very favourably with honours graduates who are on the scale £ 700 to £ 1320 per annum.¹⁸²

Overseas Aid

Overseas aid is playing an important part in training programmes in physical education. The most important forms of this aid are the Peace Corps and goodwill ambassadors of the State Department of the United States of America. In 1962 Thomas A. Hart and Melvin Whitfield¹⁸³ undertook a State Department sponsored tour.

In a speech reported by the Ghana News, the Ghanaian Ambassador to the United States of America said:

The United States Peace Corps has made a great contribution to teaching in our high schools, a contribution which is highly appreciated. Of all the aid that the United States is giving to Ghana the one which, I think, will have far more lasting effect and which will be best remembered is the work of the Peace Corps.¹⁸⁴

¹⁸¹M. Whitfield and T. A. Hart, op. cit., p. 20.

¹⁸²Letter from G. Aseidu (Ph.D. candidate Dept. of Pharmacology, University of Alberta, Sept. 1965 - June 1966).

¹⁸³M. Whitfield and T. A. Hart, op. cit.

¹⁸⁴Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, December, 1964, Vol. 2, No. 11), p. 6.

Another important source of professional training is the German Democratic Republic. This was facilitated by an agreement between the two governments, signed in 1961, to encourage co-operation and exchange in the fields of education and sports. Under this agreement coaches and sports organizers are sent to the College of Sport and Physical Culture in Leipzig.¹⁸⁵

Post School Recreation

In its approach to the development of nationalism, Ghana has adopted socialism, and the importance of indoctrination of youth to satisfy the aims of the state is well accepted by the central administration. An organization known as the Young Pioneers, corresponding to the Soviet Sport School for Youth,¹⁸⁶ has been established by the Government and Nkrumah stated that:

The youth of the country are organized in the Young Pioneers movement. Physical training plays an important part in the movement to teach the virtues of team work and the need to build healthy bodies and minds.¹⁸⁷

Membership in the movement, which embraces both boys and girls, is officially from five to twenty-five years of age. Political indoctrination plays a great part in their programme as do sport activities. The activities here seem to be complementary to activities in the schools.¹⁸⁸

¹⁸⁵Information Bulletin (Accra: Government Printer, December 1964, Vol. 2, No. 11), p. 6.

¹⁸⁶H. W. Morton, Soviet Sport (New York: Collier Books, 1963), p. 46.

¹⁸⁷Kwame Nkrumah, Africa Must Unite (Heinemann 1963), p. 100.

¹⁸⁸U. S. Department of the Army, op. cit., p. 237.

By 1961, the Young Pioneers, established in June 1960, had a budget of over \$900,000 (U.S. currency) and reportedly over 100,000 members.¹⁸⁹

In the latter part of 1961 the membership increased greatly because the government party insisted that a branch be opened in every elementary school.¹⁹⁰ In August 1961, the government by legislative instrument established the Ghana Youth Authority and the Young Pioneers became an integral part of this new organization.¹⁹¹ The Ghana Youth Authority served to co-ordinate the activities of the youth organizations throughout the country, and to provide another outlet for affecting the policies of the government. The close connections between the Youth Authority is evidenced in the fact that the National organizer of the Young Pioneers was the chief executive officer of the Youth Authority.¹⁹²

Military drill, sports and athletics formed an important part of the programme, and the general aim was for the Young Pioneer athletes to make up the Ghanaian teams for the Olympic Games.¹⁹³

The consolidation of youth organizations with international affiliations, such as the Boy Scouts (in 1958 there were 10,000 Scouts in Ghana) presented something of a problem. In May 1961, it was suggested in Parliament that the Boy Scouts and similar organizations be

¹⁸⁹ U.S. Department of the Army, op. cit., p. 237.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² Ibid., p. 238.

¹⁹³ Ibid.

abolished. In the spring of 1962, the Prime Minister declared that he was happy to learn that the Boy Scouts were gradually being oriented to the special requirements of contemporary Ghana, and that he hoped the Scouts would co-operate with the Ghana Youth Authority, to provide the young people with the qualities necessary for the further development of the nation.¹⁹⁴

The sports activities of the Young Pioneers aimed to satisfy all youth, thus providing a link between the secondary school and adult levels.

Adult Organization

At the adult level central control of sport continues. The philosophy tends to be the development of national prestige and the advancement of the international image. With his rise to power, Nkrumah quickly recognized the significance of centralized control of sport, to his administration.

A Central Organization headed by a National Sports Council was established with a close relationship to the socialist ideology of the government party. Its specific mandate was to direct, finance and organize all sport throughout the country.¹⁹⁵ The necessity for a close relationship with the Young Pioneers can be seen very clearly. Of this National Sports Council, Nkrumah said:

The National Sports Council has the full support of the government. Self government in Ghana means a richer and fuller life, which cannot be attained without the spirit of fair play and enterprise which sports can provide.¹⁹⁶

¹⁹⁴ Department of U.S. Army, op. cit., p. 238.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁹⁶ Kwame Nkrumah, I Speak of Freedom (Heinemann, 1961), p. 58.

The political aspects of the National Sports Council can be seen in the fact that athletes whose performance in international events was below par are investigated by a special committee of the National Sports Council.¹⁹⁷

The Central Organization for Sport utilising state funds, is established in the National Sports Stadium in Accra. The exact amount of money spent by the Central Organization of Sport was not revealed. But it can be assumed that part, or perhaps all of the \$900,000 (U.S.) spent by the Young Pioneers in 1961,¹⁹⁸ was administered by the Central Organization of Sport.

The Council itself comprises two members from each of the major sports federations, each of which has a small secretariat in the National Stadium. Three members are appointed by the President himself, as is the Chairman of the Council. The National Secretariat has its office in the National Stadium, and is responsible for all sports training, selection and appointments of coaches, sports directors, national teams and all activities related to national sport. The country is divided into sports regions with a director in charge of all sports programmes. These regions are served by national coaches with headquarters in the Central Organization of Sport.¹⁹⁹ As of 1965, there are national coaches in track and field, soccer and boxing.

¹⁹⁷ Department of U.S. Army, op. cit., p. 239.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., p. 237.

Facilities, Awards and Sports Competitions

From its first rise to power in 1952, the government of Ghana readily acknowledged that its support was derived from the masses of the population, and attempts were made to involve this broad base of people in national programmes. Ambitious schemes of community development and social welfare were begun. Self help was utilized extensively and schemes involving the people were started. Chief among these was the provision of playing fields. This resulted in a network of playing fields at village, city and regional levels,²⁰⁰ and at the national level with the establishment of the National Sports Stadium at Accra.

Indeed Rivkin has commented that:

One important element of the building boom which has afflicted Accra, and some of the signs are to be found elsewhere is government financed construction of public buildings, community centres and recreational facilities.²⁰¹

It is difficult to separate politics from sport in Ghana. The National Sports Stadium at Accra was finished for the Independence celebration in 1957. It was regarded as a symbol of national achievement. Even though the United Africa Company in Ghana made significant financial contributions towards the construction of the stadium, the central government advertised the new construction as principally a government effort.²⁰² This stadium has a seating capacity of 20,000 people and is now the centre of government control of sports in Ghana.²⁰³ Shortly

²⁰⁰Ghana Reconstructs (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 4, No. 6).

²⁰¹A Rivkin, op. cit., p. 121.

²⁰²Discussions with G. Aseidu (Ph.D. candidate Dept. of Pharmacology, University of Alberta, March 1965).

²⁰³Ghana Today (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 9, No. 10, Wed. 14 July 1965), pp. 4 - 5.

after independence another stadium was started at Kumasi, but due to internal political machinations and unrest, has remained unfinished.

Another venue for national competitions, with particular reference to boxing, is the Accra Sports Hall, which seats about a thousand people.²⁰⁴

Sports Competitions

Competitions in all the major sports begin at the primary level, continue through middle school and on to the secondary school level. There are inter school, district, regional and national competitions, all at school level. Post school competition (youth level) is controlled by the Young Pioneer movement. The universities and training colleges also compete against each other.²⁰⁵

At the adult level sport is organized by a number of Federations, all under the control of the Central Organization of Sport. The recognized federations are:

1. Ghana Amateur Athletics Federation.
2. Ghana Hockey Federation.
3. Ghana Amateur Boxing Association.
4. The National Soccer League.²⁰⁶

Adult sport is organized between various regions. The most successful sport for Ghana in terms of international standards has

²⁰⁴Ghana Reconstructs (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 5, No. 1, 1965), p. 6.

²⁰⁵Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, F.S. 39, April 1964), p. 4.

²⁰⁶Ghana Reconstructs (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 4, No. 6), p. 19.

been boxing and in the 1964 Olympics a bronze medal was won for Ghana by Eddie Blay. Before this other international names in boxing were Roy Ankarah, and Bob Allotley.

In keeping with the government's philosophy of Pan Africanism, competitions have been arranged with other African countries, and the West African Universities Sports competitions have been established.²⁰⁷

van Dalen, Mitchell and Bennett have advanced the view that:

Physical education is often incorporated in the curriculum to promote the physical fitness and skills necessary for national preservation, and its potential civic and social values are recognized as a means of instilling patriotic fervour and a community spirit. This is part of nationalistic education, which implies indoctrination in particular ideologies of the state.²⁰⁸

This seemed to have been the philosophy of the central government. Nationalism was encouraged at all levels of the sport systems and Natan has argued that Ghana will hardly have any white man on its team.²⁰⁹ This nationalism could be seen on National days, particularly Founder's Day²¹⁰ when the Young Pioneers gave physical displays in honour of the President. National prestige was also promoted in the striking of sports stamps and in keeping with the socialist approach²¹¹ a number of awards made by the state, through the President.

²⁰⁷ Ghana News (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 2, No. 11, December 1964), p. 3.

²⁰⁸ van Dalen et al., op. cit., p. 212.

²⁰⁹ Alex Natan, Sport and Society (London, W.C 1: Bowes and Bowes Ltd., 1958), p. 51.

²¹⁰ Ghana Today (Accra: Government Printer, Vol. 4, No. 6), p. 19.

²¹¹ H. W. Morton, op. cit., pp. 30 - 47.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of British tradition on the development of sport and physical education in the Republic of Ghana during the period of direct rule by the British and to ascertain what changes were effected after the country gained its independence from Britain.

To appreciate the many factors inherent in the development of British tradition, it was necessary to trace the growth of physical education and recreation in Britain from the early beginnings of the late nineteenth century, to the comparative enlightenment of the twentieth. For Ghana, two periods were contrasted--the period of direct rule 1900 - 1952, and the commencement of representative government from 1952 onwards, to 1965.

To have a clear understanding and appreciation of the developments in physical education and sports, it was necessary to discuss briefly the developments in general education. Physical education is a part of general education and to understand the necessity for the part, the whole must necessarily be viewed in correct perspective. The interdependence of education and social, economic and political factors was recognized. The role of each vis à vis educational developments was discussed.

In their early stages education both in Britain and Ghana showed remarkable similarities. Education was directed mainly at the top level of the population in both countries. Economic and social factors played a great part in ascertaining who would receive what in

education. In Britain, as Armfelt,¹³ Lowndes¹⁴ and Cramer and Browne¹⁸ have agreed, class distinction was a previous hallmark of the early stages of English education. So it was in the Gold Coast,¹³² with particular reference to secondary education. This was reserved for the offspring of the colonial administrators, together with a small minority of the local social élite, being prepared for minor parts in the local civil service and other branches of government. There was in both countries a slight measure of social mobility and an educational ladder of sorts, but few were successful in its ascent.

The élite who received secondary education in England at the traditional public schools, went on to higher classical education at either Oxford or Cambridge Universities, and were then recruited into the Colonial service overseas. These traditional classicists endeavoured, as Curle¹⁰⁵ claims, to pass on in the Gold Coast, the benefits of their traditional education. No cognizance was paid local customs, local traditions or local aspirations.

The advent of the Second World War led to an emancipation of feeling in both countries. There was an upsurge of liberalism and a feeling of restlessness on the part of the masses in both countries. The earlier philosophy of conservatism and laissez-faire was regarded as inadequate and political changes were made. In Britain this resulted in the rise of the Labour movement, with its doctrine of education for all. In the Gold Coast the frustrations inherent in the old system paved the way for the advent of Kwame Nkrumah and his movement for independence.

In the area of physical education there was struggle in both countries for recognition. Traditionally, sport was regarded as a pastime for the upper classes in England. The mass of the people, at first being wholly involved in the industrial revolution, had no time to spare for recreation. The development of social consciousness in the late nineteenth century, however, encouraged a measure of free time for the workers. The traditional games of rugby, cricket, hockey, tennis and athletics were confined mainly to the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford, and the graduates of these universities, entering the Colonial service, took these sports to the Gold Coast.

With the growth of social consciousness, concern was shown for the great underprivileged employed for long hours in factories in England, and measures were taken to effect reforms.²² The State, through the Board of Education, introduced physical education in the schools and local education authorities were encouraged to employ teachers of physical education. At first these teachers were mainly army officers, but as research in teaching progressed, particularly in the psychological areas, greater need was seen for the proper training of teachers. This resulted in the setting up, first, of women's colleges, and later, of men's colleges for training. Recreation for the masses developed voluntarily and various associations were formed over the years to develop and promote particular sports. Chief among these were the Central Council for Physical Recreation⁵⁵ and the National Playing Fields Association. The State, in keeping with the British tradition of respect for individuality, allowed the

establishment of these voluntary agencies. However, developments were not all encompassing, and various suggestions were made to improve the situation. The most significant of these was in 1958 when the Central Council for Physical Recreation established a committee under the Chairmanship of Sir John Wolfenden,⁵⁶ to examine and make recommendations for the improvement of sport and recreation in England. This Committee agreed to recommend the establishment of a National Sports Council to co-ordinate developments in all amateur sport in England. This Council was established in 1965.⁶¹

In the Gold Coast in the period 1900 to 1952, physical education suffered from the traditional classical approach of the colonial administrators. Education, as Curle¹⁰² argued, was conceived as resulting in the production of citizens of use primarily to Britain. This entailed only the need for workers and a small minority of classically educated local persons for the minor posts in government. Whatever recreation there was, was confined to the upper levels of the society--the administrative levels, with such traditional games as football, cricket, hockey and lawn tennis. In keeping with the normal traditions of impressionistic education, the Syllabus of Physical Training (1933)¹³¹ published in Britain, was also published in Ghana at this time, but no provisions were made for its implementation. Apter¹²¹ claimed that the British succeeded for the most part in having the colony live within its means. They failed, however, to enlarge these means sufficiently to include education and recreational facilities.

Whereas the results of these "laissez-faire" policies resulted in England in the rise of the Labour government after the Second World War, in the Gold Coast it resulted in the rise to power of the Convention Peoples Party headed by Kwame Nkrumah.

Rivkin¹³⁷ and Bartlett¹³⁸ are agreed that the new era saw the extension of education in the Gold Coast. Education became a top priority and improvements developed apace. Physical education and sport became integral parts of the school curriculum, and were organized from primary school to adult levels. The government, with its socialist approach, was dedicated to harnessing human potential in all its aspects, and official statements to this effect were made by Kwame Nkrumah.

Teachers were at first trained in England, but later (1958) a specialist training programme was established locally for the training of the teachers needed for a national programme of physical education.¹⁷⁵ For the schools, the programme was controlled and directed by the Ministry of Education with a senior officer supervising all operations. District and regional supervisors were appointed to supervise organization in the field.¹⁶² Salaries for the specialist teachers were established as nearly equivalent to honours graduates, to encourage greater numbers to this branch of teaching.¹⁸²

Traditions, however, die hard, and although greater inclusion was made of local dances and local play forms in the local teaching curriculum, the British games like soccer, cricket and hockey dominated the local scene.

In keeping with socialist philosophy, the government

endeavoured to capture the imagination of the youth of the country, and established, in true socialist manner, the Young Pioneer organization.¹⁸⁶ Here sport and physical activities were used extensively. In an attempt to develop nationalism, the government established the Central Organization of Sport to control all sport in the country.¹⁹⁵ The official doctrine as explained by Kwame Nkrumah¹⁹⁶ was the development of national prestige. All competitions were geared towards this. Sports stamps were issued, and national coaches and sports organizers appointed. To further propagate the socialist doctrine, sports training was also taken in the socialist countries of Eastern Europe.

It would appear that the pendulum of sport which under the direct rule of the British was in a state of imbalance has swung to the other extreme, to such an extent that athletes whose performance at international meets are regarded as below par are investigated by the Central Organization of Sport,¹⁹⁷ and as Natan²⁰⁹ suggested no indigenous white Ghanaian has the slightest chance of appearing on the national team.

State control of sport is confined not only to administration, but also to finance, which is channelled through the Central Organization of Sport. The natural spontaneous principle inherent in sport is absent, with participation geared only to the needs of the State. The involvement of sport and politics is apparent in the introduction of the African championship meetings, promoted by Nkrumah's philosophy of Pan Africanism.

Recommendations

In reviewing the material researched, it would appear that the concept of the separation of powers in government is absent in Ghana, and that there is more than a mere suspicion that the power of the State is synonymous with the power of the President.

It would appear also that undue stress is placed on the national prestige aspect of sports achievement, which has as a base the great amount of political indoctrination in the programme of the Young Pioneers. The Central Organization of Sport towers over the various regional sports bodies, and teachers of physical education, it would appear, are not integral parts of the post school schemes.

Political considerations seem to motivate the young people in their sports participation, and this is extended very closely to pure discrimination in the prevention of "non-Negro" Ghanaians from inclusion in National teams.

The following recommendations are therefore made:

1. A lesser involvement of the State in sport.
2. A reconsideration of the President's personal involvement in sport administration.
3. A lessening of the "national prestige" aspect of international sport.
4. A reduction of the political indoctrination of the Young Pioneers.
5. Greater autonomy of local organizations (at village level) in sport.
6. A greater involvement of the teachers of physical education in schools, with the post school schemes.
7. Freer participation by young people for the natural benefits of sport.
8. Selection to National teams to be made primarily on merit, and the elimination of considerations of colour.

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